- Graph generalities
- Graph processing
- Storing the graph
- Aside: Variable-length representations
- Graph compression with instantaneous codes: BVGraph
- BVGraph for general graphs: LLPA
- Graph compression with Elias-Fano: EFGraph

Graph generalities

Graph generalities

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Graph generalities

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- Undirected graphs can be safely identified with symmetric graphs.
- In an undirected graphs, nodes are often called *vertices* and pairs of opposite arcs are called *edges*.

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In some applications, one may want more than one arc between two nodes (i.e., that E is a multiset of pairs, instead of a set). We call these generalization *multigraphs*.

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In some other applications, E is not a set of pairs, but a set of r-tuples. In this case, we talk of *hypergraphs*.

A graph can be labelled on its nodes and/or on its arcs. Node-labelling functions map nodes (or arcs) to a set of suitable labels.

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A special case of labelling is the assingnment of real values, that is often called a *weighting function* (hence we call a graph node-weighted or arc-weighted).

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These graphs may have a *humongous* number of vertices (not rarely, they have billions of nodes!). Typically, though, they are very *sparse*: A *sparse graph* is one with O(n) arcs (instead of $O(n^2)$).

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- π starts at node x_0 (also called the *source* of π)
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A path in G is a sequence $\pi = x_0, x_1, \dots, x_k \in V$ such that $(x_i, x_{i+1}) \in E$ for all $i = 0, \dots, k-1$. We say that:

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- it is a *cycle* iff k > 0 and the source and target coincide.
- if there is a path from x to y we say that y is reachable from x
- if there is a cycle, G is called cyclic.

Let $x \approx y$ iff there is a path from x to y and vice-versa. The equivalence classes of \approx are called the *strongly connected* components (SCCs) of G. The SCCs of G^s are called the *weakly* connected components (WCCs) of G: in the case of a symmetric graph, WCCs and SCCs coincide (and we just talk of "connected components").

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The reduced graph G^{\dagger} is the graph whose nodes are the SCCs of G, with an arc from [x] to [y] whenever there is a node $x' \approx x$ and a node $y' \approx y$ with $(x', y') \in E$.

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Theorem

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Graph generalities

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Given G = (V, E) and $x \in V$, define:

• in-directed clustering coefficient of *x*:

$$c_{G}^{-}(x) = rac{|E_{G} \cap (N_{G}^{-}(x) \times N_{G}^{-}(x)|)}{d_{G}^{-}(x)^{2}}$$

or, if loop are not allowed:

$$c_{G}^{-}(x) = \frac{|E_{G} \cap (N_{G}^{-}(x) \times N_{G}^{-}(x))|}{d_{G}^{-}(x) \cdot (d_{G}^{-}(x) - 1)}$$

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- $c_G^+(x)$ is defined similarly
- for undirected loopless graphs:

$$c_G(x) = \frac{2|E_G \cap (N_G(x) \times N_G(x))|}{d_G(x) \cdot (d_G(x) - 1)}$$

Graph generalities

A graph morphism $f : G \to H$ is a function $f : V_G \to V_H$ such that $(x, y) \in E_G$ if and only if $(f(x), f(y)) \in E_H$.

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A graph morphism $f : G \to H$ is a function $f : V_G \to V_H$ such that $(x, y) \in E_G$ if and only if $(f(x), f(y)) \in E_H$. A bijective graph morphism is called an *isomorphism*. If there exists an isomorphism between G and H we say that G and H are isomorphic, and write $G \cong H$.

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Graph processing

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• Binary graph properties

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- Binary graph properties
 - Is the graph planar?

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- Binary graph properties
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- Binary graph properties
 - Is the graph planar?
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- Binary graph properties
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- Vector properties
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 - Centrality (e.g., eccentricity)
A graph property P is isomorphism-invariant iff

 $G \cong H$ implies P(G) = P(H).

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Properties that are *not* isomorphism-invariant are tricky (they depend on the specific identity of nodes).

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Properties that are *not* isomorphism-invariant are tricky (they depend on the specific identity of nodes). If we limit ourselves to isomorphism-invariant properties, we can

assume w.l.o.g. that $V_G = \{0, 1, ..., n-1\}$.

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• direct access queries:

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 - G.arc(x, y) (is there an arc from x to y in G?)

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- sequential access (a.k.a., streaming):
 - *G.E* (enumerate the arcs, possibly preserving the consecutivity of in/out-neighborhoods)
 - if G.E can be called only once (or O(1) times), the access is "streaming".

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• for a given property P

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- for a given property P
- for a given access mode

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- for a given property P
- for a given access mode
- write an algorithm that computes (or approximates, in some sense) G → P(G)

Storing the graph

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- ... "storing the graph"?
 - Having a data structure that allows you, for a given node, to know its successors.

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- If the graph is node-labelled (e.g., a web graph with URLs as node labels): having a way to know which label corresponds to a given node and vice versa.

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Here: we only consider the former problem, not the latter!

How much space do we need to store a graph with n nodes and m arcs?

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where d = m/n is the average degree.

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where d = m/n is the average degree. This means about log(n/d) + O(1) bits per arc. But *complex* networks are NOT random graphs!.

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• adjacency matrix: a $n \times n$ binary matrix G with $G_{xy} = 1$ iff $(x, y) \in E_G$.

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- scanning the graph sequentially takes time $O(n^2)$
- highly unsuitable for sparse graphs!

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- scanning the graph sequentially takes time O(m)

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Naive representation



The offset vector tells, for each given node x, where the successor list of x starts from. Implicitly, it also gives the degree of each node.

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How much space does this representation take?

• Successor array: *m* elements (arcs), each containing a node (log *n* bits); with 32 bits, we can store up to 4 billion nodes (half of it, if we don't have unsigned types)

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All in all, 32(n + m) bits. If we assume m = 8n (a very modest assumption on the outdegree), we need 288n bits, i.e., 288 bits/node, 36 bits/arc.

We show how to reduce this of an order of magnitude.

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Use a variable-length representation for successors. Such a representation should obviously...

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What about the offset array?

- bit displacement vs. byte displacement (with alignment)
- we have to keep an explicit representation of the node degrees (e.g., in the successor array, before every successor list).

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Variable-length representation



Node degrees (blue background), followed by successors. Each number is represented using an instantaneous code (possibly, different for degree and successors).

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Aside: Variable-length representations

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Instantaneous code

An instantaneous (binary) code for the set S is a function
 c : S → {0,1}* such that, for all x, y ∈ S, if c(x) is a prefix of c(y), then x = y.

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• An instantaneous code for which the *equality* holds is called "complete".

Given a set S and an instantaneous code $c : S \to \{0, \}^*$, the *expected length of c* with respect to some probability distribution $p : S \to [0, 1]$ is

$$E_p[c] = \sum_{s \in S} p(s) \cdot |c(s)|.$$

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 Given a probability distribution p, the optimal code is the instantaneous code c^{*}_p : S → {0,1} minimizing E_p[c^{*}_p].

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 - c_p^* is the Huffman coding.

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Aside: Variable-length representations

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• Given an instantaneous code $c: S \to \{0,1\}^*$, define a $p: S \to [0,1]$ as

$$p(x)=2^{-|c(x)|}.$$

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- Given an instantaneous code $c: S \to \{0,1\}^*$, define a $p: S \to [0,1]$ as $p(x) = 2^{-|c(x)|}.$
- *p* is called the *intended distribution* for the code *c*.

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It is easy to see that (if S is finite) c is the optimal code for p; in fact:

$$H(p) = \sum_{s \in S} -p(s) \log p(s) = \sum_{s \in S} 2^{-|c(s)|} |c(s)| = \sum_{s \in S} p(s) |c(s)| = E_p[c].$$

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So, in practice, the choice of the code to use will be based on the expected distribution of the data.

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- If $S = \{1, 2, ..., N\}$, to represent an element of S it is sufficient to use $\lceil \log N \rceil$ bits.
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- The fixed-length representation for S uses exactly that number of bits for every element (and represents x using the standard binary coding of x - 1 on $\lceil \log N \rceil$ bits).
- Intended distribution:

$$p(x) = 2^{-\lceil \log N \rceil}$$
 uniform distribution.

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• If $S = \mathbf{N}$, one can represent $x \in S$ writing x zeroes followed by a one.

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- So $I_x = x + 1$, and the intended distribution is

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 geometric distribution of ratio 1/2.

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Unary coding

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0	1
1	01
2	001
3	0001
4	00001

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Unary coding can be seen as a special case of a more general kind of coding for **N**. Suppose you group **N** into *slots*: every slot is made by consecutive integers; let

$$V = \langle s_1, s_2, s_3, \dots \rangle$$

be the slot sizes (in the unary case $s_1 = s_2 = \cdots = 1$).

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- encode *in unary* the index *i* of the slot containing *x*;
- encode *in binary* the offset of x within its slot (using ⌈log s_i⌉ bits).

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Golomb coding with modulus b is obtained choosing

$$V = \langle b, b, b, \ldots \rangle.$$

To represent $x \in \mathbf{N}$ you need to specify the slot where x falls (that is, $\lfloor x/b \rfloor$) in unary, and then represent the offset using $\lceil \log b \rceil$ bits (or $\lfloor \log b \rfloor$ bits).

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$$I_x = \left\lfloor \frac{x}{b} \right\rfloor + \lceil \log b \rceil.$$

The intended distribution is

 $p(x) = 2^{-l_x} \propto (2^{1/b})^{-x}$ geometric distribution of ratio $1/\sqrt[b]{2}$.

A finer analysis shows that Golomb coding is optimal (=Huffman) for a geometric distribution of ratio p, provided that b is chosen as

$$b = \left\lceil \frac{\log(2-p)}{-\log(1-p)}
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ceil$$

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0	1 0		
1	1 10		
2	1 11		
3	01 0		
4	01 10 01 11		
5			
6	001 0		

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Elias' γ

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1	1
2	01 0
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Universal codes

Aside: Variable-length representations

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• Given an instantaneous code c for the integers, we say that it is *universal* iff $E_p[c]/H[p]$ is bounded above by a constant for every non-increasing distribution p.

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- In other words, a universal code is one that does not loose more than a constant factor with respect to the optimal code *independently from the distribution* (provided that it is non-increasing).
- Elias' γ is the first example we meet of a universal code!

Elias' δ coding of $x \in \mathbf{N}^+$ is obtained by representing x in binary preceded by a representation of its length in γ . [Also δ is universal!]

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$$l_x = 1 + 2\lfloor \log \log x \rfloor + \lfloor \log x \rfloor \implies p(x) \propto \frac{1}{2x(\log x)^2}$$

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Elias' δ coding of $x \in \mathbf{N}^+$ is obtained by representing x in binary preceded by a representation of its length in γ . [Also δ is universal!] So

$$V_x = 1 + 2\lfloor \log \log x \rfloor + \lfloor \log x \rfloor \implies p(x) \propto \frac{1}{2x(\log x)^2}$$

1	1
2	010 0
3	010 1
4	011 00
5	011 01
6	00100 000
7	00100 001

... to think of γ coding is that x is represented using its usual binary representation (except for the initial "1", which is omitted), with every bit "coming with" a continuation bit, that tells whether the representation continues or whether it stops there. For example (up to bit permutation) γ coding of 724 (in binary: 1011010100) is

0111101110111000

What happens if we group digits k by k?

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0011111011011000

011101000

1101101000

Aside: Variable-length representations

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For x, we use $\lceil \log(x)/k \rceil$ bits for the unary part, and the same number of bits multiplied by k for the binary part.

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$$l_x = (k+1)(\lceil \log(x)/k \rceil) \implies p(x) \propto x^{-(k+1)/k}(\operatorname{Zipf} (k+1)/k)$$

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k-bit-variable coding (cont'd)

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A more efficient variant: the ζ_k codes (for Zipf $1 \rightarrow 2$).

	$\gamma = \zeta_1$	ζ_2	ζ3	ζ_4
1	1	10	100	1000
2	010	110	1010	10010
3	011	111	1011	10011
4	00100	01000	1100	10100
5	00101	01001	1101	10101
6	00110	01010	1110	10110
7	00111	01011	1111	10111
8	0001000	011000	0100000	11000

Comparing codings



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Graph compression with instantaneous codes: BVGraph

Graph compression with instantaneous codes: BVGraph

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 BTW: some codings (e.g., Elias γ and δ) are universal: for whatever monotonic distribution, they guarantee an expected length that is only within a constant factor of the optimal one.

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- BTW: some codings (e.g., Elias γ and δ) are universal: for whatever monotonic distribution, they guarantee an expected length that is only within a constant factor of the optimal one.
- Degrees are often distributed like a Zipf of exponent \approx 2.7: they can be safely encoded using γ .
- What about successors? Let us assume that successors of x are y₁,..., y_k: how should we encode y₁,..., y_k?

In general, we cannot say much about their distribution, unless we make some assumption on the way in which nodes are numbered.

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Locality

In general, we cannot say much about their distribution, unless we make some assumption on the way in which nodes are numbered. The following considerations hold true for web graphs!

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Locality

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• Many hypertextual links contained in a web page are *navigational* ("home", "next", "up"...). If we compare the URL they refer to with that of the page containing them, they share a long common prefix. This property is known as *locality* and it was first observed by the authors of the Connectivity Server.

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- Many hypertextual links contained in a web page are *navigational* ("home", "next", "up"...). If we compare the URL they refer to with that of the page containing them, they share a long common prefix. This property is known as *locality* and it was first observed by the authors of the Connectivity Server.
- To exploit this property, assume that URLs are ordered lexicographically (that is, node 0 is the first URL in lexicographic order, etc.). Then, if x → y is an arc, most of the times |x - y| will be "small".

Exploiting locality

If x has successors $y_1 < y_2 < \cdots < y_k$, we represent its successor list though the gaps (*differentiation*):

$$y_1 - x, y_2 - y_1 - 1, \dots, y_k - y_{k-1} - 1$$

(only the first value can be negative: wa make it into a natural number...). How are such differences distributed?



Graph compression with instantaneous codes: BVGraph

URLs close to each other (in lexicographic order) have similar successor sets: this fact (known as *similarity*) was exploited for the first time in the Link database.

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We may encode the successor list of *x* as follows:

- we write the differences with respect to the successor list of some previous node x r (called the *reference node*)
- we explicitly encode (as before) only the successors of x that were not successors of x r.

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More explicitly, the successor list of x is encoded as (*referencing*):

• an intger r (reference): if r > 0, the list is described by difference with respect to the successor list of x - r; in this case, we write a bitvector (of length equal to $d^+(x - r)$) discriminating the elements in $N^+(x - r) \cap N^+(x)$ from the ones in $N^+(x - r) \setminus N^+(x)$

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- an explicit list of *extra nodes*, containing the elements of $N^+(x) \setminus N^+(x-r)$ (or the whole $N^+(x)$, if r = 0), encoded as explained before.

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Node	Outdegree	Successors
 15	 11	 13, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 23, 24, 203, 315, 1034
16	10	15, 16, 17, 22, 23, 24, 315, 316, 317, 3041
17	0	
18	5	13, 15, 16, 17, 50

Node	Outd.	Ref.	Copy list	Copy list Extra nodes				
 15	 11	 0		 13, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 23, 24, 203, 315, 1034				
16	10	1	01110011010	22, 316, 317, 3041				
17	0							
18	5	3	11110000000	50				

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Node	Outd.	Ref.	# blocks	# blocks Copy blo		Extra nodes		
15	11	0				13, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 23,		
16	10	1	7	0,	0, 2, 1, 1, 0, 0	22, 316,		
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Among the extra nodes, many happen to sport the *consecutivity* property: they appear in clusters of consecutive integers. This phenomenon, observed empirically, have some possible explanations:

- most pages contain groups of navigational links that correspond to a certain hierarchical level of the website, and are often consecutive to one another;
- in the transpose graph, moreover, consecutivity is the dual of similarity with reference 1: when there is a cluster of consecutive pages with many similar links, in the transpose there are intervals of consecutive outgoing links.

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To exploit consecutivity, we use a special representation for the extra node list called *intervalization*, that is:

- sufficiently long (say ≥ T) intervals of consecutive integers are represented by their left extreme and their length minus T;
- other extra nodes, if any, are called *residual nodes* and are represented alone.

Node	Outd.	Ref.	# blocks	Copy blocks	Extra nodes	
 15	 11	 0			 13, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 23,	
16	10	1	7	0, 0, 2, 1, 1, 0, 0	22, 316,	
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Node	Outd.	Ref.	# bl.	Copy bl.s	# int.	Lft extr.	Lth	Residuals
15	11	0			2	15,	4,	13, 23
16	10	1	7	0, 0,	1	316	1	22, 3041
17	0							
18	5	3	1	4	0			50

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When the reference node is chosen, how far back in the "past" are we allowed to go?

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• a large *W* guarantees better compression, but increases compression time and space

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- after W = 7 there is no significant improvement in compression.

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The choice of W does not impact on decompression time.

Referencing involves recursion: to decode the successor list of x, we need first to decompress the successor list of x - r, etc. This chain is called the *reference chain* of x: decompression speed depends on the length of such chains.

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During compression, it is possible to limit their length keeping into account of how long is the reference chain for every node in the window and avoiding to use nodes whose reference chain is already of a given maximum length R.

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The choice of R influences the compression ratio (with $R = \infty$ giving the best possible compression) but also on decompression speed ($R = \infty$ may produce access time that can be two orders of magnitude larger than R = 1 — it may even produce stack overflows).

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BVGraph for general graphs: LLPA

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The basic property we have been exploiting so far is that *nodes are numbered according to the lexicographic ordering of URLs*. Is it possible to adapt / extend this idea to non-web graphs, e.g., to social networks?

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The basic property we have been exploiting so far is that *nodes are numbered according to the lexicographic ordering of URLs*. Is it possible to adapt / extend this idea to non-web graphs, e.g., to social networks?

- What we want is an ordering of the nodes that is compression friendly
- In particular, we want that most arcs are between nodes that are very close (as numbers) to each other.

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Goal: unravel the clustered structure inside social networks, search for an ordering that run through clusters and use it to compress the graph much better than the theoretical lower bound.

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• very few clustering techniques scale up to very large graphs

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Goal: unravel the clustered structure inside social networks, search for an ordering that run through clusters and use it to compress the graph much better than the theoretical lower bound. Constraints:

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- I cluster sizes are going to be very unbalanced

Orderings and communities (cont'd)

BVGraph for general graphs: LLPA

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• You can obtain an ordering from a clustering just sorting by cluster label

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- You can obtain an ordering from a clustering just sorting by cluster label
- Different clustering algorithms yield different and incomparable orderings

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- You can obtain an ordering from a clustering just sorting by cluster label
- Different clustering algorithms yield different and incomparable orderings
- Main idea:
 - Run a clustering algorithm A
 - Renumber nodes sorting by A's labels, breaking ties using the node numbers (i.e., sort stably by A's labels)
 - Iterate with another clustering algorithm

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LPA are a class of clustering algorithm that work as follows:

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LPA are a class of clustering algorithm that work as follows:

- Every node adopts the label that is most common among its neighbors...
- ... with an adjustment depending on the overall popularity of the label

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Require: G a graph, γ a density parameter 1: $\pi \leftarrow$ a random permutation of *G*'s nodes 2: for all x: $\lambda(x) \leftarrow x$, $v(x) \leftarrow 1$ 3: while (some stopping criterion) do for i = 0, 1, ..., n - 1 do 4: for every label ℓ , $k_{\ell} \leftarrow |\lambda^{-1}(\ell) \cap N_G(\pi(i))|$ 5: $\hat{\ell} \leftarrow \operatorname{argmax}_{\ell} [k_{\ell} - \gamma(v(\ell) - k_{\ell})]$ 6: 7: decrement $v(\lambda(\pi(i)))$ 8: $\lambda(\pi(i)) \leftarrow \hat{\ell}$ 9: increment $v(\lambda(\pi(i)))$ end for 10.

11: end while

Here $v(\ell)$ is the number of nodes currently labelled by ℓ , so $v(\ell) - k_{\ell}$ is the popularity of label ℓ outside of the current neighborhood.

BVGraph for general graphs: LLPA

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Layered Label Propagation Algoritm (LLPA)

BVGraph for general graphs: LLPA

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Layered Label Propagation Algoritm (LLPA)

 \bullet Repeatedly run LPA with different values of γ

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Layered Label Propagation Algoritm (LLPA)

- Repeatedly run LPA with different values of γ
- Renumber nodes sorting by stably by the new labels

Name	LLP		BFS	Shingle		Natural		Random	
Amazon	9.16	(-30%)	12.96	14.43	(+11%)	16.92	(+30%)	23.62	(+82%)
DBLP	6.88	(-23%)	8.91	11.42	(+28%)	11.36	(+27%)	22.07	(+147%)
Enron	6.51	(-24%)	8.54	9.87	(+15%)	13.43	(+57%)	14.02	(+64%)
Hollywood	5.14	(-35%)	7.81	6.72	(-14%)	15.20	(+94%)	16.23	(+107%)
LiveJournal	10.90	(-28%)	15.1	15.77	(+4%)	14.35	(-5%)	23.50	(+55%)
Flickr	8.89	(-22%)	11.26	10.22	(-10%)	13.87	(+23%)	14.49	(+28%)
indochina (hosts)	5.53	(-17%)	6.63	7.16	(+7%)	9.26	(+39%)	10.59	(+59%)
uk (hosts)	6.26	(-18%)	7.62	8.12	(+6%)	10.81	(+41%)	15.58	(+104%)
eu	3.90	(-21%)	4.93	6.86	(+39%)	5.24	(+6%)	19.89	(+303%)
in	2.46	(-30%)	3.51	4.79	(+36%)	2.99	(-15%)	21.15	(+502%)
indochina	1.71	(-26%)	2.31	3.59	(+55%)	2.19	(-6%)	21.46	(+829%)
it	2.10	(-28%)	2.89	4.39	(+51%)	2.83	(-3%)	26.40	(+813%)
uk	1.91	(-33%)	2.84	4.09	(+44%)	2.75	(-4%)	27.55	(+870%)
altavista-nd	5.22	(-11%)	5.85	8.12	(+38%)	8.37	(+43%)	34.76	(+494%)

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Graph compression with Elias-Fano: EFGraph

Graph compression with Elias-Fano: EFGraph

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Elias-Fano representation

Graph compression with Elias-Fano: EFGraph

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- A very general technique!

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The representation is almost optimal (Elias proves that it is < .5 bit away from the information-theoretic lower bound).